1

Time-varying stimuli that prolong IKK activation promote nuclear remodeling and mechanistic switching of NF-κB dynamics

Authors
Steven W. Smeal[1], Chaitanya S. Mokashi[1,2], A. Hyun Kim[1], P. Murdo Chiknas[1], Robin E. C. Lee[1,3,†]

Affiliations
[1]Department of Computational and Systems Biology, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15213, USA
[2]current address Altos Labs, Redwood City, CA, 94065, USA
[3]Center for Systems Immunology, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15213, USA

Other footnotes
[†]Corresponding Author: robinlee@pitt.edu

Abstract

Temporal properties of molecules within signaling networks, such as sub-cellular changes

in protein abundance, encode information that mediate cellular responses to stimuli. How

dynamic signals relay and process information is a critical gap in understanding cellular

behaviors. In this work, we investigate transmission of information about changing

extracellular cytokine concentrations from receptor-level supramolecular assemblies of IκB

kinases (IKK) downstream to the nuclear factor κB (NF-κB) transcription factor (TF). In a

custom robot-controlled microfluidic cell culture, we simultaneously measure input-output

(I/O) encoding of IKK-NF-κB in dual fluorescent-reporter cells. When compared with single

cytokine pulses, dose-conserving pulse trains prolong IKK assemblies and lead to

disproportionately enhanced retention of nuclear NF-κB. Using particle swarm optimization,

we demonstrate that a mechanistic model does not recapitulate this emergent property. By

contrast, invoking mechanisms for NF-κB-dependent chromatin remodeling to the model

recapitulates experiments, showing how temporal dosing that prolongs IKK assemblies

facilitates switching to permissive chromatin that sequesters nuclear NF-κB. Remarkably,

using simulations to resolve single-cell receptor data accurately predicts same-cell NF-κB

time courses for more than 80% of our single cell trajectories. Our data and simulations

therefore suggest that cell-to-cell heterogeneity in cytokine responses are predominantly

due to mechanisms at the level receptor-associated protein complexes.

Introduction

The typical body of an adult human has 10s of trillions of cells[1], and in some cases, individual cell behaviors can affect the entire organism. When cells are exposed to different biologic cues in their microenvironment, such as inflammatory cytokines, they activate dynamic signal transduction networks that mediate vital cell fate decisions. Deregulation of these networks contributes to a panoply of autoimmune diseases and cancers[2-4]. Variability and nonlinearity are typical characteristics of cellular signal transduction that limit our understanding of healthy and diseased cell behaviors and decisions processes. Variability arises from intrinsic and extrinsic sources of biochemical noise associated with stochastic molecular interactions that impact transcription rates, protein expression, among other biological processes[5-8]. Meanwhile, nonlinearity emerges due to complex biomolecular networks that include a host of feedback and feedforward loops. Adding to this complexity, the extracellular environment is dynamic, and cells are constantly exposed to multiple signaling molecules with changing concentrations. The combined effects of variability, nonlinearity, and dynamic input signals contribute to versatility of signaling pathways to regulate a wide range of responses. Therefore, experiments that combine single cell dynamics with computational modeling are important to reveal the capabilities of signaling systems and understand their emergent properties[9].

When inflammatory cytokines in the extracellular milieu activate transmembrane cytokine receptors, clustered receptors recruit cytoplasmic adaptors and enzymes to form a supramolecular protein assembly near the plasma membrane[10,11]. As the assembly matures, polyubiquitin scaffolds form around the protein core. A hallmark of cytokine

responses is recruitment-based activation of IKK kinase complexes to assemblies through

the ubiquitin binding domain of NEMO, the IKK regulatory subunit[12-15]. Using fluorescent

protein (FP) fusions of NEMO, individual assemblies can be visualized by live-cell

microscopy as diffraction-limited puncta near the plasma membrane[16,17]. The mature

protein assembly is a signal integration hub that activates IKK to coordinate downstream

inflammation-driven NF-κB signaling. Although the supramolecular assemblies, referred to

as 'complex I' (CI)[10,11], were first characterized for responses to tumor necrosis factor (TNF),

interleukin-1ß (IL-1) and other cytokines produce CI-like assemblies with cytokine-specific

receptors and adaptor proteins. CI and CI-like assemblies are reliant on different

combinations of ubiquitin chain scaffolds[15,16]. However, all regulate IKK activation via

induced proximity of IKK with other signaling mediators that reside on the assembly[18]. For

simplicity, we refer to the family of CI and CI-like assemblies simply as 'CI'.

IKK activity following induction of CI promotes degradation of NF-κB inhibitor proteins

(IκB) in the cytoplasm, and nuclear accumulation of NF-κB transcription factors[19]. Temporal

properties of NF-κB in the nucleus encodes a dynamic transcriptional signal, regulating

diverse gene expression programs that promote cell survival and propagate inflammatory

signals. Live-cell tracking of FP fusions of the RelA subunit of NF-κB have provided

instrumental data to understand and model transcriptional mechanisms and emergent

properties that place the NF-κB pathway among exemplars of dynamical biological

systems[20-22]. Key to these discoveries are negative feedback mediators, particularly IκBα,

that are transcriptionally regulated by NF-κB. Following NF-κB activation, newly synthesized

IκBα promotes nuclear export and cytoplasmic sequestration of NF-κB, restoring its baseline

cytoplasmic localization. Combined experiments and models have revealed mechanisms

for dynamical regulation of nuclear NF-κB and transcriptional feedback; however, we have

limited understanding of how information from dynamic extracellular signals is encoded and

decoded within cells by the IKK-NF-κB signaling axis.

Typically, cellular signaling pathways have been studied using dose-response

approaches that expose cells to continuous and unchanging extracellular stimuli. While

responses to static concentrations provide a foundational readout for investigating cell

behaviors, they are neither comparable to the dynamic signals observed *in vivo* nor sufficient

to fully probe the versatility of cellular responses. We and others have recently shown that

dynamic cell cultures can be achieved using PDMS- or acrylic-based microfluidic flow

devices that vary with trade-offs between complexity, precision, and multiplex capabilities[23-

26]. In most cases, single cell studies of signal transduction in dynamic microenvironments

have revealed unexpected emergent properties that have inspired significant refinement of

models that aim to predict and understand the underlying biological circuits[27-31].

In this work, we investigate IL-1 induced signaling in U2OS osteosarcoma cells to

understand how information for time-varying extracellular cytokines is encoded within cells.

The dual reporter cells were CRISPR-modified for endogenous FP fusions to observe active

receptor complexes through supramolecular assemblies of EGFP-NEMO, the regulatory IKK

subunit, and downstream dynamics of an mCherry-fusion of the NF-κB RelA subunit. Using

live-cell imaging in a custom robot-controlled microfluidic cell culture system, we

simultaneously measure upstream and downstream reporters in single cells exposed to

dynamic stimuli. By observing I/O encoding of IKK-NF-κB signals and comparing cells

exposed to a single cytokine pulse with varied duration, we show monotonicity between the

aggregate of activated receptor complexes and downstream TF dynamics. This result is

consistent with our previous investigation of cells exposed continuously to static cytokine

concentrations[17]. Remarkably, monotonicity of I/O encoding breaks down when cells are

exposed to a series of short cytokine pulses. We observe that dynamic TF responses to pulse

trains are significantly greater than expected from a single pulse, even when pulse trains are

compared to a bolus of a larger overall cytokine dose. Enhanced TF responses to a cytokine

pulse train can be attributed to marked alteration of nuclear export dynamics of NF-κB,

transitioning from first-order to sustained zero-order kinetics in cells where activated

receptor complexes persists for longer than 80 minutes. Using particle swarm optimization,

we demonstrate that a mechanistic model does not recapitulate this emergent property of

the IKK-NF-κB signaling axis and fails to switch to zero-order kinetics in response to a pulse

train. By contrast, adding mechanisms for DNA binding and NF-κB-dependent chromatin

remodeling, the resulting models recapitulate all the experimental findings. Our model

suggests that temporal dosing that prolongs IKK activation facilitates pseudo-zero-order

switching by two coupled mechanisms that prolong nuclear NF-κB retention without

requiring persistent or saturating conditions: i) by promoting permissive chromatin states

that expose new NF-κB binding sites; and consequently ii), by limiting the concentration of

free nuclear NF-κB available to regulate expression of negative feedback mediators.

Furthermore, simulations using the calibrated model to resolve experimental CI time

courses from a complete set of single-cell validation data that were not used during

optimization, accurately predicts same cell NF-κB responses for over 80% of single cell time

courses. Together, our results demonstrate that when overall cytokine dosage is limited,

temporal stimuli can encode distinct cellular behaviors, and that cell-to-cell variability in

cytokine responses is largely accounted for by variability of receptor-level mechanisms.

Results

IL-1 pulse duration produces a monotonic correlation between same-cell IKK and NF-κB responses

We previously developed a CRISPR-modified U2OS cell line that co-express FP fusions of NEMO (EGFP-NEMO) and RelA (mCh-RelA) from their endogenous loci. These dual-reporter cells were used to investigate the IKK-NF-kB signaling axis in cells exposed to continuous stimuli[17]. By simultaneously measuring time courses of fluorescence intensity for supramolecular assemblies of EGFP-NEMO as a reporter for CI and nuclear NF-kB in the same cell, these studies revealed fundamental aspects of signal encoding in the pathway. We reported that extracellular cytokine concentrations control the numbers and timing of formation for CI assemblies. Experiments that tracked EGFP-NEMO at individual CI assemblies revealed that fluorescence intensity time-courses of single puncta are invariant between different cytokine concentrations. Further experiments revealed cytokine-specific encoding, where a quantized number of EGFP-NEMO molecules is recruited at each CI structure. Here, TNF-induced receptor assemblies are shorter-lived and recruit approximately 30% the peak amount of EGFP-NEMO when compared with brighter and longer-lived IL-1-induced assemblies. Finally, we observed that activity from CI puncta is pooled for downstream signal transmission where the aggregate area under the curve (AUC) of CI puncta numbers is a strong same-cell predictor of the AUC nuclear NF-kB response.

Our previous results helped define the rules of signal encoding in terms of cytokine-specificity and static cytokine concentrations. However, these experiments did not investigate the orthogonal axis of how time-varying patterns of cytokines influence IKK-NF-

κB signaling. We therefore set out to probe the pathway by first measuring the dynamics of

IKK and NF-κB responses as a function of cytokine pulse duration. To generate cytokine

pulses while simultaneously performing high magnification single-complex imaging, we

leveraged a recently developed dynamic stimulation system (DSS). The DSS consists of a

custom robotic gravity pump controller that coordinates laminar fluid streams in a paired

microfluidic cell culture device[24]. The microfluidic device was simplified from the previous

DSS instrumentation as a two-inlet cell culture chamber (Fig. 1a, Supplementary Fig. 1, and

Supplementary File 1). Here, one inlet is attached to a fluid reservoir with a mixture of

cytokine, indicator dye, and cell culture medium, and to the other, a reservoir with medium

only. Using the gravity pump to vertically relocate the fluid reservoirs generates hydrostatic

pressure differentials at the inlets of the microfluidic device and positions the laminar

cytokine-containing stream over the cells within (Fig. 1b). By varying the relative heights of

the cytokine-containing and medium-only reservoirs, the system can be used to generate

pulses in the experimental region of the cell culture device (orange boxes, Fig. 1b). In

principle, the automated system described here operates like a manually controlled system

we described previously[23], but with enhanced precision, reproducibility, and constant flow

rates[24].

Using our dual-reporter cell line, we investigated the same-cell dynamics of NEMO

assemblies and NF-κB nuclear translocation in a microfluidic device. We focused on cellular

responses to 10ng/mL of IL-1, a non-saturating cytokine concentration that produces vibrant

NEMO assemblies and unambiguous nuclear NF-κB responses[17]. Consistent with our

previous results, dual-reporter cells in the device showed transient localization of EGFP-

NEMO to CI-like complexes, peaking in numbers by approximately 20 minutes, and robust

nuclear translocation of mCh-RelA (Fig. 1c, and Supplementary Movie 1). Next, we

measured single cell time-courses of EGFP-NEMO puncta and nuclear mCh-RelA in

response to a single IL-1 pulse across a range of durations. Previously, we showed that time-

integrated AUCs for trajectories of NEMO spot numbers and nuclear RelA fold change are

scalar descriptors of single cell time courses that encode the most information about

cytokine concentration[32,33]. Consistent with these results, AUCs of EGFP-NEMO spot

numbers and nuclear mCh-RelA in single cells show increasing responsiveness with pulse

duration and form a strongly monotonic continuum of same-cell correlations (Fig. 1d-f).

Previous works have shown that mammalian cell lines may follow an 'area-rule',

where the fraction of responsive cells and overall NF-kB activation strength is proportional

to the product of concentration and duration of cytokine stimulation[23,34]. Our current results

are consistent with the 'area-rule', showing that information about extracellular pulse

duration is also well determined when observed upstream via EGFP-NEMO puncta that

provide an estimate for CI activation. Next, we asked if the area rule remains true for

increasingly complex patterns of dynamic cytokine stimulation.

Cytokine pulse trains produce significantly greater NF-kB responses than expected

from a single pulse

Cytokines typically have short half-lives *in vivo*, particularly for TNF and IL-1 that are rapidly

cleared from the bloodstream within minutes[35-37]. Since inflammatory secretions in the

vicinity of activated immune cells are also likely to be concentration and duration limited,

with localized depletion effects[38], cells may experience cytokines as a more rapid series of

short pulses. Pulses of inflammatory cytokines have been shown to selectively regulate long

lasting transcriptional programs. For example, in neuroblastoma cells, a single 5-minute

pulse of TNF can initiate transcription of NF-kB-regulated early response genes that persist

for hours, but not late response genes that require either constant or repeat cytokine

stimulation[21]. We therefore asked whether a succession of short cytokine pulses in the

extracellular milieu is encoded distinctly by the IKK-NF-kB axis, or if responses to a pulse

train follows an 'area rule' equivalent to a single bolus of same overall dose.

We compared cellular responses between a single 6-minute pulse that produces an

intermediate response strength (Fig. 1c and d), and multiple shorter pulses with the same

cumulative IL-1 exposure but spread out in time. We partitioned a single 6-minute pulse

equally into either two, three or four short pulses, and compared inter-pulse gap durations

between 5 and 20 minutes (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 2). In comparison with a single 6-

minute pulse, time-courses for NEMO puncta numbers in response to pulse trains showed

lower peak values and longer spot persistence (Fig. 2a). Although in some pulse train

conditions there was a subtle overall increase in AUC of NEMO puncta, these values typically

did not reach significance and remained smaller than exposure to a larger single 15-minute

pulse (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 2). Remarkably, despite only subtle and often non-

significant increases in the AUC of IKK responses, many of the pulse-train conditions

showed significant increases in the AUC of nuclear mCh-RelA time-courses (Fig. 2B). Even

though pulse trains produced comparable peak amounts of nuclear RelA with similar timing

to a dose-conserving single bolus, contributing to the stronger NF-kB AUC response was

markedly slower nuclear export. Nuclear export of NF-kB following a pulse train appeared

almost linear, following zero-order kinetics. Nuclear export of RelA in response to a pulse

train contrasts with most single pulse responses less than 30 minutes, which exhibit

exponential nuclear export, as expected from first- and higher-order biomolecular reactions

(Fig. 2 and Supplementary Movie 2). The enhancement effect of linear nuclear RelA export

is exemplified by the condition with four 1.5-minute pulses of IL-1 separated by a 5-minute

gap (4x1.5), which showed a greater than 2-fold increase in overall AUC. The nuclear RelA

response strength for the 4x1.5 condition even surpassed responses to a 15-minute pulse

despite the former having less than half the total cytokine exposure (Fig. 2B and

Supplementary Movie 3). Finally, monotonicity of same-cell correlations between AUCs of

NEMO spots and nuclear RelA was disrupted for pulse train conditions (Fig. 2C).

The unexpected increase in the response strength of nuclear RelA to a pulse train is

an emergent property of the signaling pathway. We next asked whether the emergent

property is specific to cytokine or cell type and found that strongly TNF-responsive KYM-1

rhabdomyosarcoma cells that express FP-RelA[23,33] show similarly enhanced responses to

TNF pulse trains (Supplementary Fig. 3). Notably, some pulse train conditions diminish the

emergent property effect. For example, conditions with fewer pulse numbers and longer

inter-pulse gap lengths in the order of 10-20 minutes tend to have weaker nuclear RelA

responses for both cell types and both cytokines (Supplementary Figs. 2 and 3). Together,

these results suggest that cells can bypass the area rule in response to dynamic milieus and

encode more information through CI assemblies than is represented by the scalar AUC of

NEMO puncta.

Stimulation patterns that prolong NEMO puncta shifts the mechanism of NF-kB nuclear

export

Since the AUC of NEMO puncta could not explain enhanced nuclear NF-kB in response to a

pulse train, we asked if other quantitative features of EGFP-NEMO single cell time courses

reflect the emergent property. When temporal features were quantified from NEMO time

courses, distributions for both the timing of maximal (t_{max}) and time to adaptation (t_{adapt}) of

NEMO spot numbers showed trends like the AUC of nuclear RelA (Fig. 3a-c).

Next, we set out to establish quantitative features of EGFP-NEMO that correlate with

features of nuclear RelA. Because the maximum of nuclear RelA fold change did not show a

strong trend between pulse-trains and dose-conserving single-pulses, we focused on

scoring rates of nuclear RelA export (Fig. 3d and Supplementary Fig. 4a). As mentioned

earlier, we visually observed that dynamics for nuclear RelA export appeared to switch from

a first order to a pseudo-zero-order reaction (Figs. 2a and 3d) in response to a pulse train. To

quantify this observation, single-cell nuclear RelA export dynamics were fitted to two

models that represent zero-order and first-order kinetics (Supplementary Fig. 4b; and see

methods). In the results, increasingly positive scores indicate a progressively stronger zero-

order exit rate, while negative values correspond to first-order exit rates. We observed that

single 6-minute and 15-minute pulse shows strong first-order dynamics and the responses

to pulse trains showed strong zero-order kinetics (Supplementary Figs. 1c, d and 4c). Finally,

we correlated features of EGFP-NEMO against the nuclear RelA export order score. Although

t_{max} of NEMO only correlated weakly, by contrast, t_{adapt} of NEMO showed a strong monotonic

correlation with the nuclear RelA exit rate score (Fig. 3e, f). Based on our data, stimulation

profiles that prolong CI assemblies beyond 80 minutes shift the nuclear export rate of RelA

towards a pseudo-zero-order process and thus enhance the AUC of the nuclear NF-kB

response.

A model with chromatin remodeling recapitulates the emergent property and nuclear

NF-kB export

Mechanistic models provide mathematical representations of biological systems, enabling

researchers to test hypotheses and synthesize their understanding of system-level

behaviors. Ordinary differential equation-based models of the NF-kB transcriptional system

have been deeply informative. Previous models parameterized to quantitative assays and

single cell data have been used to investigate nuclear translocation dynamics of NF-κB,

emphasizing negative feedbacks from IκB isoforms[39] and A20[21], as well as mechanisms for

fold change detection (called D2FC, derived from previous models)[32]. Each of these models

has been built upon their predecessors to answer different questions. However, none of the

models have been parameterized to single receptor-complex data and dynamic stimuli.

To explore the possible biological mechanisms that contribute to zero-order

switching and enhanced nuclear RelA retention in response to a pulse train, we first asked if

the D2FC model directly recapitulates experiments. Since we have a compendium of single

cell data from dual-reporter cell lines, we modified the model to activate IKK directly from

experimental time courses of EGFP-NEMO puncta and simulate nuclear NF-κB responses

(Fig. 4a). We first tested the previously published parameterization of the D2FC model, using

a fitted scaling parameter to interface experimental data for EGFP-NEMO puncta that

produces a best fit simulated NF-κB response (see methods). Although the naive D2FC

model replicates the AUC of NF-κB for responses to a single pulse, the model results did not

show increased AUC of nuclear NF-κB nor switching to zero-order export mechanisms when

simulations were run using EGFP-NEMO pulse-train data as inputs (Supplementary Fig. 5).

Next, we tested if the topology of the D2FC model can reproduce the emergent

property using parameter optimization. Particle swarm optimization (PSO) is a bio-inspired

algorithm that searches parameter space for candidate solutions, using an objective

function to measure the quality of fit for each[40]. Implementations of PSO often identify nearly

global optimal parameterizations in high-dimensional and rugged objective landscapes. To

decrease the computational time, we considered a minimal dataset of 4 experimental

conditions that manifest the emergent property (consisting of control, 1x6min, 4x1.5min,

and 1x30min pulse data; Fig. 4a top panel). Subsequently, we used PSO to simulate

responses to the average of EGFP-NEMO time-courses from each condition, using the

average of nuclear mCh-RelA for each condition as the objective function (Fig. 4A). PSO was

repeated 500 times to generate parameter sets that sample the model's best fits to data. For

the 500 parameter sets, we performed post-hoc analysis to evaluate three error criteria for

each: i) error in producing a nearly 2-fold increase in the AUC of nuclear NF-κB comparing

1x6min and 4x1.5min conditions, referred to as the 'emergent property' score; ii) the average

sum squared error (<SSE>) of fits to the 4 training conditions; and, (iii) the SSE of fits to

validation data consisting of 5 mean experimental conditions that were not used for PSO

(Fig. 4b). Remarkably, each of the optimized D2FC models had high error scores across

evaluation criteria (Fig. 4b), failing to recapitulate the system's emergent property

(Supplementary Fig. 5c). Taken together, the results suggest that the topology of the D2FC is

missing critical circuitry that is necessary to explain the experimental observations.

Pseudo-zero-order processes are unusual behaviors in biological systems because

they appear to be independent of reactant concentrations. Typically, zero-order kinetics

result from systems where one of the reactants is greatly limited or scaffolded into a lower

reactivity state. Since NF-κB is well established as a transcription factor, we hypothesized

that NF-κB binding to broadly to DNA[41-45] may be an essential mechanism that is not explicit

in the D2FC model. Furthermore, there is a growing body of literature that characterizes

chromatin remodeling capabilities of NF-kB. For example, NF-kB can bind to assembled

nucleosomes and flanking DNA, contributing to DNA unwrapping and nucleosome

displacement[46,47]. Chromatin reorganization was found to decode the duration of nuclear

NF-kB, where prolonged nuclear TF contributes to stimulus- and gene-specific transcription

initiation by progressively revealing promoter sequences that are otherwise closed in basal

conditions[48]. More recently, prolonged non-oscillatory nuclear NF-kB was shown to cause

cytokine-inducible alterations to chromatin accessibility near NF-kB binding sequences,

activation of latent enhancers, and epigenetic reprogramming[22]. Therefore, additional

mechanisms were added to the model, to include NF-kB binding to DNA and chromatin

remodeling that reveals additional NF-kB binding sites via mechanisms akin to pioneering[49]

(see methods). The modified D2FC model with chromatin remodeling is referred to as D2FC-

squared (D2FC^2) henceforth (see methods, Supplementary Tables 1 and 2).

Using PSO, we again sampled 500 parameter sets with the D2FC^2 architecture. The

D2FC^2 model produced high quality fits, significantly reducing scores of the 3 error criteria

(Fig. 4B). Parameterization sets of the D2FC^2 from PSO showed that the approach effectively

explored the prior distribution of acceptable parameters, and the top 10 scoring models

were able to achieve a similar quality of results despite being derived from distinct

combinations of parameters (Fig. 4B, and Supplementary Fig. 6). Taken together, the

topology of D2FC^2 enables the model to recapitulate the average behaviors of all

experimental conditions, with robustness to variation of parameters.

A model with chromatin reorganization accurately predicts single cell responses and

experiments

Training and validation simulations with the D2FC^2 model used averages of experimental

single cell time courses for each condition, both as inputs to simulations and to evaluate the

quality of fits. We next asked whether the D2FC^2 accurately predicts single-cell dynamics.

Using the 3 error criteria to rank the models, the top-performing parameter set in the D2FC^2

was selected for further analysis (Fig. 4b, red asterisk). Single-cell EGFP-NEMO time-

courses from all the single pulse and pulse train conditions were as inputs to simulate

nuclear NF-kB responses. Visually, simulated single-cell time courses of nuclear NF-kB

appeared like experiments, showing both first-order and zero-order nuclear export kinetics

appropriate to each condition (Fig. 5a). AUCs of simulated nuclear NF-kB to single pulse

conditions showed dose-responsiveness, and consistent with expectations based on error

scores following PSO, D2FC^2 simulations for pulse trains recapitulated the emergent

property (Fig. 5b and c). Furthermore, interquartile ranges of boxplots were similar when

comparing experiments and simulations, suggesting that cell-to-cell variability at the level

of CI dynamics contributes significantly to variability of nuclear NF-kB dynamics observed

in single-cell experiments.

Following, we moved away from population average data and evaluated the quality

for single cell fits by measuring the SSE between experimental nuclear RelA trajectories and

simulated NF-kB dynamics. An elbow plot was used to define the error threshold to classify

low- and high-quality fits, and a stricter threshold was applied to define a third class of

'excellent fits' where experiment and simulations overlap almost perfectly (Supplementary

Fig. 7). When compared between experimental conditions, performance of the D2FC^2 was

consistent with most single cells showing high- and excellent-quality fits (Fig. 5d, left). The

single 15-minute pulse and the 3x2min were the conditions that showed the most low-

quality fits; nevertheless, even these weakest conditions still achieved excellent or high-

quality fits for approximately 70% of single cell trajectories. Comparing the top 10 D2FC^2

parameter sets, all recapitulate single pulse dose-responsiveness and the emergent

property, as well as produce high-to-excellent predictions for over 80% of the single cell

nuclear RelA trajectories aggregated across all conditions (Fig. 5d, right; see also

Supplementary Table 3). These results demonstrate that many different parameterizations

of the D2FC^2 architecture can robustly resolve single-cell EGFP-NEMO time courses and

predict nuclear RelA responses across a heterogeneous population of cells.

Finally, we asked whether the D2FC^2 can predict the impact on nuclear RelA

dynamics in the presence of a chromatin perturbation. Azacitidine is cytidine analog that

incorporates into DNA and inhibits DNA-methyltransferase DNMT1, promoting

hypomethylation and chromatin relaxation over timescales of days[50]. To model the effects of

azacytidine, the term representing basal DNA accessibility was increased and the model

was allowed to adapt to a new steady state before resolving the average EGFP-NEMO time

course for a 6-minute pulse. The simulations revealed two trends: first, that progressively

relaxed chromatin leads to increased basal abundance nuclear RelA; second, that fold-

change responses of nuclear RelA following cytokine stimulation are effectively reduced

(Fig. 6a and b). To test these model predictions, cells were cultured in the presence of

azacytidine for 3 or 6 days before exposure to a single 6-minute pulse of IL-1. Although 3 days

of culture with azacytidine appeared like untreated control cells, 6-day samples were

consistent with the model, showing significant enrichment of basal RelA prior to stimulation

and suppressed nuclear RelA dynamics in response to IL-1 (Fig. 6c, d, and Supplementary

Fig. 8). Thus, chromatin organization influences cytokine-induced temporal profiles of

nuclear NF-kB.

Peak number and adaptation time of CI fine tunes chromatin permissiveness and

nuclear NF-kB dynamics

Temporal profiles of IKK activity encode information about the abundance and type of

inflammatory factors in the milieu, regulating nuclear NF-kB and stimulus-specific gene

expression programs[17,51]. Our results here show that features of IKK at CI assemblies also

encode information about temporal presentation of cytokines, such as their numbers and

timing, that in succession regulate feedback pathways in the nucleus (Fig. 7a).

Based on single cell time courses of EGFP-NEMO from static cytokine

concentrations[17], single cytokine pulses (Fig. 1), and cytokine pulse trains (Fig. 2), CI-

encoding can be decomposed into a primary peak and a second slow-adapting distribution

(Fig. 7b). We leveraged the D2FC[2] to systematically evaluate the impact of CI-encoding

features on downstream signaling (Fig. 7c). First, we considered nuclear NF-kB fold change,

which we showed previously to correlate strongly with NF-kB-regulated early response

genes[32]. Here, maximal nuclear NF-kB correlates with peak CI numbers that saturate around

300, and adaptation time for the secondary distribution had negligible impact (Fig. 7c, top

left). Comparing rates of nuclear NF-kB export showed a non-linear relationship with CI-

encoding features. A primary peak of approximately 50 CI puncta and adaptation times of

greater than 80 minutes were both strictly required for conversion of nuclear NF-kB export

rates from a first order to pseudo-zero-order process (Fig. 7c, top right). Higher peak CI

numbers required even longer adaptation times to achieve zero-order NF-kB export kinetics,

possibly requiring greater CI persistence to compensate for stronger first-wave transcription

negative feedback mediators, such as IkBα. Chromatin openness showed a similar pattern,

requiring a minimum peak CI of nearly 100 puncta, and prolonged activation to increase

overall permissiveness (Fig. 7c, bottom left). Even the highest peak CI numbers failed to

enhance chromatin opening unless adaptation time also persisted for more than 60-80

minutes. Finally, since open chromatin reveals new NF-kB binding sites, both productive and

non-productive in regulating gene transcription, we measured the fraction of free nuclear

NF-kB as a function of chromatin status. Remarkably, even when concentrations of nuclear

NF-kB are at their highest, permissive chromatin can deplete free nuclear NF-kB (Fig. 7c,

bottom right). Therefore, despite high total concentrations of nuclear NF-kB, permissive

chromatin at later times may only leave trace amounts of free nuclear TF to interact with

promoters of early response genes such as IkBα.

Studying I/O relationships in dual-reporter cells exposed to dynamic stimuli, while

leveraging naturally occurring cell-to-cell variability, revealed features of CI encoding that

regulate time profiles of nuclear NF-kB. Simulations with the D2FC[2] show that the primary

peak of CI determines the fold change of nuclear NF-kB and the adaptation time facilitates

switching towards more permissive chromatin states with additional NF-kB binding sites.

Importantly, DNA-based sequestration of nuclear NF-kB is transient, and the model allows

nascent IkBα polypeptides to interact with DNA-bound NF-kB to facilitate dissociation, as

seen in experiments[52]. Together, our experiments and simulations suggest that the transition

to a pseudo-zero-order export process results from the combined effect of sequestration

and feedback depletion on early gene promoters.

Discussion:

On the surface of a human cell, the number of IL-1 and TNF receptors is relatively small, estimated in the range of hundreds to low thousands per cell[17,53]. Following cytokine stimulation, ligated receptors are rapidly internalized and degraded [54,55]. Therefore, a limited and depletable resource of surface receptors is available to encode information about the inflammatory milieu into the cell via CI assemblies. We reasoned that cytokine conditions that spread out a stimulus in time may encode different signals from tonic and saturating boluses that would rapidly deplete the available receptor pool. To this end, our result shows that temporal properties of IKK encode information about time-varying extracellular conditions that can be used by the cell in succession to regulate distinct temporal response patterns of nuclear NF-κB.

We used dynamic stimuli, dual-reporter cells, and computational models to investigate information encoding properties of the IKK-NF-κB signaling axis. Exposing dual-reporter cells to a single cytokine pulse revealed that the aggregate AUCs of IKK and nuclear NF-κB increase with the IL-1 pulse duration, forming a continuum of single cell I/O responses (Fig. 1f). In contrast, when a cytokine is presented as a series of short pulses, monotonicity of the aggregate I/O response is disrupted with cells showing disproportionately enhanced AUCs for nuclear NF-κB responses (Figs. 2 and 3). We determined that the aggregate AUC of IKK puncta is not sufficient to predict same-cell NF-κB responses to dynamically presented stimuli. Instead, orthogonal axes for peak numbers and adaptation times of CI were predicted to encode signals that enhance NF-κB responses by mechanisms that switch nuclear export from a first- to pseudo-zero-order process. Although both features are

important contributors, CI adaptation times where EGFP-NEMO puncta persist for around

80 minutes or longer define a threshold for conversion to zero-order kinetics. This

observation is reminiscent of a previous computational prediction where a constant plateau

of low-amplitude IKK activity following can mediate long-lasting nuclear NF-κB time

profiles[51]. Nevertheless, experiments differ from these predictions because CI assemblies

and IKK kinase assays in wild-type cells[16,17,51,56] show adaptation, typically within 60-90

minutes following exposure to TNF or IL-1. Based on our experiments and model results, we

surmise that the tail of IKK activity that extends beyond 80 minutes is crucial to blunt the first

wave of IκBα-mediated feedback, subsequently facilitating nuclear remodeling that

supports zero-order export kinetics.

In contrast with experiments, and regardless of model parameterization, simulations

with the D2FC model[32] to predict NF-κB responses did not show switching between first- and

zero-order nuclear export kinetics, and the emergent property with enhanced response

AUCs. The D2FC[2] modified the base model by invoking explicit DNA-binding and chromatin-

remodeling mechanisms for NF-κB. These were selected because they reflect increasingly

well-characterized mechanisms that can create reactant-limiting conditions necessary for

a pseudo-zero-order process. To illustrate this point, NF-κB binds to hundreds of non-

redundant sequences that are distributed with repetition throughout the human genome[43,57].

Early estimates predicted that there are significantly more binding sites in the genome than

the ~10^5 NF-κB molecules in a typical mammalian cell[41]. Subsequently, tens of thousands of

NF-κB binding sites have been observed in macrophages and B cells, as well as enrichment

of NF-κB binding on the 5' end of genes or other non-promoter sequences[42,44,45]. More recent

results using genetic knockout of IkBα in mouse BMDMs showed prolonged nuclear NF-κB

following TNF stimulation, along with disruption of nucleosomal histone-DNA interactions

in the vicinity of NF-κB binding sites[22]. Since earlier studies did not use genetic or chemical

perturbations that are necessary to produce prolonged nuclear NF-κB responses and

chromatin reorganization in differentiated immune cells, they are likely to underestimate the

breadth of NF-κB-DNA interactions. Taken together, there is a vast abundance of productive

and non-productive NF-κB-DNA interactions that are basally accessible, and significantly

more following chromatin reprogramming[48]. Incorporation of these roles in the $D2FC^2$

revealed that consequences of DNA-binding and chromatin are sufficient to switch nuclear

NF-κB export to a pseudo-zero-order process. Consequently, our results also suggest that

mechanisms associated with chromatin dynamics and epigenetic reprogramming are

selected via dynamic stimuli that control the timing and numbers of CI. There is growing

recognition of multi-hit immune signaling where cytotoxicity is additive over multiple sub-

lethal interactions between immune and cancer cells[58,59]. With these observations, our

results support that dynamic cytokine presentations, such as multi-hit pulses, may encode

distinct messages to receiving subpopulations of non-immune cells, including cancers.

By using PSO to fit averaged experimental data from four conditions that embody the

emergent property, families of model parameterizations were identified that successfully

recapitulate experiments. As discussed earlier, the $D2FC^2$ model architecture was modified

for chromatin permissiveness and DNA binding only, and did not invoke any additional

molecular species or mechanisms. Simulations *in silico* further demonstrated capabilities

of $D2FC^2$ to accurately predict single cell NF-κB responses from time courses of CI, validated

with a compendium of experimental trajectories from dual reporter cells. Given that there

were no single-cell data used during optimization, it was remarkable that a family of different

model parameterizations was found, each capable of accurately predicting same-cell NF-

κB responses from experimental EGFP-NEMO time profiles. The added mechanisms of

D2FC^2 are robust, allowing the resulting system to achieve consistent behavior without

requiring strict expression levels for all molecular species in the model that individually tend

to exhibit variability when measured in single cells. Taken together, low numbers for cytokine

receptors and stochasticity of their interactions are among the chief contributors to

heterogeneity between single cell NF-κB responses, which can be accurately predicted from

CI-level measurements.

Dynamics of nuclear NF-κB mount stimulus-specific adaptive responses through

selective regulation of gene expression programs, many of which cluster into early-, mid-,

and late-response categories[21,51,60]. Although late response genes are typically associated

with tonic and high-concentration inflammatory stimuli, this may not be strictly required.

Based on our experiments and model, we speculate that mid- and late-response genes can

arise from chromatin accessibility, and that certain temporal stimuli that distribute CI

numbers in time have the potential to reveal their promoters via chromatin remodeling.

However, follow-up studies to test this possibility will require further refinements to our

model. For example, the mechanism for chromatin remodeling in the D2FC^2 is likely to be an

oversimplification, lacking mechanisms for gene-specific promoter accessibility and other

DNA-binding proteins such as AP-1 that remodel chromatin in response to inflammation[61,62].

Similarly, theoretical IKK distributions studied in the model may be difficult to achieve

experimentally, and another layer of detail is necessary to accurately predict the distribution

of peak numbers and timing from complex environmental stimuli. Nevertheless, we expect

that forthcoming models will explicitly model CI puncta and gene-specific promoters

relative to chromatin. Through a comprehensive model, we will understand how basal

conditions of different cell types encode and decode certain cytokine responses, and how

complex environments can select gene expression programs using CI and IKK as signaling

hubs.

In summary, our results demonstrate that the number and timing of CI assemblies

encode information about time-varying stimuli in the extracellular milieu. With limited

numbers of surface receptors to nucleate CI assemblies, extracellular conditions that

prolong the adaptation time of CI disproportionately enhance the aggregate NF-κB response.

These observations are recapitulated in a model of NF-κB signaling by invoking mechanisms

for DNA-binding and chromatin reorganization. The resulting system reveals how IKK-

encoding of dynamic environmental conditions distinctly coordinate a range of potential NF-

κB responses through systems feedback and chromatin remodeling.

Methods

Cell Culture

CRISPR-modified U2OS cells expressing N-terminal fusions of EGFP-NEMO and mCherry-RelA from their endogenous loci[17], as well as KYM-1 cells stably expressing mVen-RelA, were cultured in McCoy's 5A and RPMI medium respectfully at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2. The medium was supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Corning), penicillin (100 U/mL), streptomycin (100 U/mL), and 0.2 mM L-glutamine (Invitrogen). Cells were routinely screened for mycoplasma contamination.

Live-cell imaging for pulse experiments in the microfluidic dynamical stimulation system

A custom microfluidic system, as previously described[24], was used for single and repeat pulse experiments. Briefly, two-inlet PDMS devices were fabricated from corresponding 3D-printed molds, sterilized by autoclaving, washed with ethanol, followed by PBS and subsequently incubated with a 0.002% (v/v) fibronectin solution in PBS for 24 hours at 37°C. U2OS double-CRISPR cells (~5 × 10^6 cells/mL) were seeded into the microfluidic devices and incubated for at least 24 hours.

On the day of the experiment, the microfluidic device was connected using Tygon tubing to fluid reservoirs on the gravity pump containing the appropriate treatments. FluoroBrite DMEM medium (Gibco, A18967-01) supplemented with 10% FBS (Corning), penicillin (100 U/mL), streptomycin (100 U/mL), and 0.2 mM L-glutamine was used during imaging. IL-1 and

TNF treatments were prepared with Alexa Fluor 647–conjugated BSA (0.0025% v/v of a 5

mg/mL stock; Invitrogen) to visualize the cytokine containing stream in the device.

Images of EGFP-NEMO were acquired every 4 minutes using FITC filters, with a z-stack of

eight images at 0.5-µm intervals, using 0.04-second exposure and 32% transmission.

Similarly, mCherry-RelA was imaged every 4 minutes using the Alexa A594 filters, with 0.1-

second exposure and 50% transmission. Alexa Fluor 647–conjugated BSA was imaged every

1 minute using the CY5 channel with 0.1-second exposure and 50% transmission. All images

were acquired in an environmentally controlled chamber (37°C, 5% CO_2) on a DeltaVision

Elite microscope equipped with a pco.edge sCMOS camera and an Insight solid-state

illumination module (GE Healthcare) at 60x LUCPLFLN oil objective.

Treating cells with 5-azacitidine

U2OS double-tagged cells were treated with 5 uM of azacitidine (Sigma Aldrich, A2385) while

growing in a 10 cm dish. Since azacitidine is reported to degrade rapidly in aqueous solutions

at room temperature, cells received fresh 5 uM azacitidine daily for 3 or 6 days before

imaging. The day before imaging, cells were seeded on a 96-well plate at 6,000 cells/well.

On the day of imaging, the media in the wells were replaced with FluoroBrite DMEM

supplemented with FBS, penicillin, streptomycin, and L-glutamine. A single 6-minute pulse

of IL-1 at 50 ng/mL was given to the cells. 50 ng/mL was chosen because it most resembled

the IKK profile of a single 6-minute pulse of IL-1 in a microfluidic chip. Cells were imaged to

measure the nuclear localization of mCherry-RelA for 3 hours, with 4 minutes intervals.

Extracting EGFP-NEMO and mCherry-RelA time profiles from live-cell images

As previously decribed[63,64], dNEMO software was used to detect and quantify EGFP-NEMO

spots. The spot detection threshold in dNEMO was set between 2.1 and 2.4, and only spots

present in at least two contiguous slices of the 3D images were considered valid. Individual

cells were manually segmented using dNEMO's keyframing function. The mCherry-RelA

nuclear intensity trajectories were quantified using custom python scripts. Briefly, the

custom scripts allowed to identify regions of background and the nucleus across all frames

by defining regions by a box. Nuclear NF-kB was determined by calculating the mean pixel

intensity of the nucleus by the mean background intensity of the frame. Each cell trajectory

was manually tracked across all images. To calculate the fold change, mCherry-RelA

trajectories were divided by the initial nuclear fluorescence at time zero. The area under the

fold-change curve was calculated by first subtracting by 1 and setting any negative values

equal to 0. The trapezoidal function in MATLAB was used to calculate the area under the

curve from the data.

$$NFkBFC\ AUC = trapz(\max(NFkBFC - 1,0))$$

Where NFKBFC represents the fold change nuclear NF-kB.

Mechanistic modeling

The mechanistic model of NF-kB activation through IKK, called D2FC, was used as

previously published[32]. Briefly, the mechanistic model contains the key events from IKK

activation, degradation of IkB due to IKK, NF-kB translocation to the nucleus, and the up-

regulation of IkB in the cell. To interface the single-cell measurements of IKK punctate

formation, the D2FC model was modified such that the activation of IKK from its neutral state

depended on the formation of IKK punctate structures. The rate of formation is:

$$IKK_n \rightarrow IKK$$

$$Rate = \ k_a * IKKSpots(t) * IKK_n$$

The parameter k_a was optimized to reduce the sum of the squared error of the training data

and represents the parametrization of D2FC.

The input, IKKSpots(t), consists of experimental trajectories obtained from live-cell imaging.

These trajectories were fitted to a sum of four Gaussians using MATLAB's fit function. To

ensure that the fitted curve started at zero, additional weight was placed on the initial value

during optimization. Finally, all simulated IKK trajectories were visually inspected to confirm

that they captured the basic trends observed in the experimental data.

$$IKK(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{4} a_i e^{\left[-\left(\frac{(x-b_i)}{c_i}\right)^2\right]}$$

The parameters for each single cell IKK trajectory and mean IKK trajectory can be found in

the ModeledIKKTrajectories.xlsx supplementary information.

The D2FC^2 model introduced an additional mechanism that was necessary to fit the

emergent property as described in the results. The new mechanisms involved NF-κB binding

and opening new DNA-binding sites in chromatin. This mechanism includes a new model

species, NFκBDNA, representing NF-κB bound to DNA. The binding rate of NF-κB to DNA is

influenced by cooperative effects, where the presence of already-bound NF-κB increases

the likelihood of additional NF-κB binding. This phenomenon reflects a so-called pioneering

effect[49] in which the binding of NF-κB facilitates chromatin relaxation, opening more binding

sites and enhancing NF-κB recruitment where Ps_0 represents the basal nuclear openness

and was fixed to a value of 1:

$$NFkB \rightarrow NFkBDNA$$

$$Rate = ka1d * DCoop * NPio$$

$$DCoop = \frac{\left(\frac{NFkB}{\text{kdNFKB}}\right)^{h2}}{1 + \left(\frac{NFkB}{\text{kdNFKB}}\right)^{h2}}$$

$$NPio = Ps_0 + Ps * \frac{\left(\frac{NFkBDNA}{KDNA}\right)^{h3}}{1 + \left(\frac{NFkBDNA}{KDNA}\right)^{h3}}$$

NF-κB can dissociate from DNA either through direct binding of nuclear IκBα or via a basal

rate of dissociation. The two methods follow basic mass action kinetics

$$IkBa + NFkBDNA \rightarrow IkBaNFkB$$

$$Rate = ka2a * [N.IkBa] * [N.NFkBDNA]$$

$$NFkBDNA \rightarrow NFkB$$

$$Rate = kd1d * [NFkBDNA]$$

Emergent property score

The emergent property score was calculated by first simulating nuclear RelA trajectories for

each of the single cell trajectories of the single 6, single 15, and four 1.5-minute pulses.

Since Fig. 2 showed an increase in the median AUC of nuclear RelA (fold change) between

the single 6-minute and 4x1.5-minute pulses and between the single 6-minute pulse and

single 15-minute pulse, the emergent property score was defined as follows:

$Emergent\ Property\ Score = abs\left(\frac{med(AUC_{4x1.5})}{med(AUC_{1x6})} - \frac{med(\widehat{AUC_{4x1.5}}(\theta))}{med(\widehat{AUC_{1x16}}(\theta))}\right) + abs\left(\frac{med(AUC_{1x15})}{med(AUC_{1x6})} - \frac{med(\widehat{AUC_{1x15}}(\theta))}{med(\widehat{AUC_{1x16}}(\theta))}\right)$

Where $\widehat{AUC}_{1x6}(\theta)$, $\widehat{AUC}_{1x15}(\theta)$, $\widehat{AUC}_{4x1.5}(\theta)$ represents the data set of single-cell predictions

for the parameter set θ for the AUC of the nuclear RelA (fold change) for the 1x6, 1x15, and

4x1.5-minute pulses. AUC_{1x6}, AUC_{1x15}, and $AUC_{4x1.5}$ represent the area under the curve for the

experimental single cell trajectories.

Model simulations

D2FC and $D2FC^2$ were built using MATLAB 2023a. Associated code is available through the

supplement   (Supplementary   Files   2)   and   the   following   repository

(https://github.com/recleelab/D2FCSquared/) . SimBiology was used to generate ordinary

differential equations from the reaction rates. Models were simulated for 10 days without

cytokine stimulation to ensure a steady state was reached. Then the IKK profile

corresponding to the appropriate dose was simulated to get the simulated results. Particle

swarm optimization from MATLAB's Global optimization toolbox was used to optimize the

parameter set to fit the average results from four scenarios used for fitting which included

the control, 1x6 minute pulse, 1x30-minute pulse, and 4x1.5-minute pulse of IL-1. The global

optimization attempted to minimize the following equation where $y_{i,t}$ is the experimental

measurement for scenario i at time = t, and $\hat{y}_{i,t}(\theta)$ is the model estimate for parameter set

θ:

675
$$J(\theta) = \sum_{i}\sum_{t}\left(y_{i,t} - \hat{y}_{i,t}(\theta)\right)^2 + NFkB_{Herusitic}(\theta)$$

676   Where:

677
$$NFkB_{Herusitic}(\theta) = \begin{cases} 0 & if\ 0.01 < R_{\frac{nuc}{cyt}} < 0.3 \\ 100 & if\ R_{\frac{nuc}{cyt}} < 0.01 \\ 5 * R_{\frac{nuc}{cyt}} & if\ R_{\frac{nuc}{cyt}} > 0.3 \end{cases}$$

The $NFkB_{Herusitic}$ was designed to ensure proposed parameters had a basal nuclear NF-kB

described as the ratio of NF-kB in the nucleus to cytoplasm ($R_{\frac{nuc}{cyt}}$) within experimental

expectations. Model values going below the lower limit were strongly penalized whereas

models above were penalized proportional to ratio. The heuristic was set up to significantly

penalize the overall optimization score if the basal nuclear NF-kB conditions were not met.

Particle swarm optimization was run with a swarm size of 100 particles and ceased after 20

consecutive iterations to prevent stalling, where the system could not achieve a reduction in

the optimization score. Parameter values were optimized in $\log_{10}$ format to help the optimizer

explore the full parameter space across multiple orders of magnitude. The prior distribution

of parameters ranges for optimization were carefully selected to represent biophysically

relevant ranges around each parameter in the D2FC model (Supplementary table 4).

Quantification of zero- vs. first-order nuclear export kinetics

Single-cell trajectories of nuclear NF-kB fold change were classified as having first- or zero-order nuclear export kinetics by fitting two models to data at the point of nuclear NF-kB exiting the nucleus. A linear model was fit between the point of decay and the last data point. The first order decay model was fitted by setting N_0 to the value of decay and finding the k value that minimized the sum of squared error. To avoid parameters for the first order decay rate that are linear, a minimum parameter exponential rate constant of k was set to 0.0167 min^{-1} which represents a first order decay rate where approximately 95% of the nuclear Rela would exit the nucleus within 180 minutes. Defining a maximum value was essential to create a single metric for differentiating first and zero order decay rates.

Zero-Order Decay Model:

$$y = m * t + b$$

First-Order Decay model:

$$y(t) = N_0 * e^{-k*t}$$

For each single-cell trajectory, the time point of nuclear NF-kB exit rate was identified and the first and zero order models were fit to the data, only considering points after NF-kB started to exit the nucleus. The sum of squared error (SSE) was determined for both models and the nuclear RelA exit rate score is calculated to be the difference between the SSE_{Zero} −

SSE_{First}. Positive values indicate zero-order and negative values indicate first-order nuclear

export kinetics.

Benchmarking the quality of the single cell predictions

Single-cell IKK trajectories were used as input for the model to generate predictions for each

cell. The sum of squared errors (SSE) was calculated for each of the 194 single-cell model

predictions to assess their accuracy. To classify the quality of these predictions, we

established thresholds for 'excellent,' 'high,' and 'poor' fits. The threshold for 'high' fits was

determined using an elbow plot. This was done by gradually increasing the threshold and

counting the number of unacceptable fits (see Supplementary Fig. 7). To identify the elbow

point, we first drew a line connecting the first and last points on the plot. We then measured

the perpendicular distances from each point on the elbow plot to this line. The point with the

maximum distance from the line was selected as the elbow point, which defined the optimal

threshold for high-quality fits. To further classify the single cell trajectories, we divided the

single cell trajectories between simulations that were considered excellent (which was

defined as half of the elbow point) and high-quality fits.

SimBiology model

A mechanistic model was constructed using SimBiology (MATLAB) by employing command-

line tools within an m-file, rather than the graphical interface. This approach enhanced

flexibility and automation in model development and simulation. SimBiology was used as a

tool to automate the process of converting from reaction rate equations to a set of ordinary

differential equations (ODE).

Simulated CI Trajectories

Simulated CI trajectories were generated by first creating an zeros array with one value set

to 1, representing the peak time. The array had a length of 46, matching the number of

timepoints in our time-lapse imaging. The peak was positioned at 28 (index position 7)

minutes, and a linear interpolation filled in the values between timepoints 0–28 and 28 to a

variable adaptation time, resulting in trajectories with a triangular shape. To aid downstream

fitting to Gaussian equations, a rolling average with a window of 3 was applied to smooth the

trajectory. The smoothed CI trajectories were then fit to the sum of four Gaussian equations,

for simulation in the model. To ensure simulation started at zero, additional weight was

added to t=0 to the optimization function. With the method, we can precisely control the

peak height, peak time, and adaptation time for the CI trajectories.

Simulation of Chromatin Opening

Chromatin opening to simulate azacitidine treatment was done by increasing the basal

chromatin openness parameter, Ps_0. To estimate the effect of chromatin permissiveness on

the fraction of free NF-κB, a sub-model was constructed that included only the binding and

unbinding of NF-κB to DNA. In this model, only free and bound NF-κB were dynamic, while

all other species, specifically IκBα, were held constant at the steady state value before CI

formation. The rate of NF-κB binding to DNA was determined by the equation:

755
$$Rate_{Binding} = ka1d * DCoop * NPio_{const} * [N.NFkB]$$

where NPio$_{const}$ was held constant during the simulation but varied for generating the

heatmap in Fig. 7C (bottom-right). The rate of NF-κB unbinding from DNA was influenced by

both the basal dissociation rate and binding to IκBα. IκBα was set to a constant value, equal

to the steady state value after 10 days of simulation, to ensure the sub-model closely

resembled the full model. Parameters from the best-fitting D2FC2 model were used for the

simulations.

762
$$Rate_{unbinding} = kd1d * [N.NFkBDNA] + ka2a * [N.IkBa_{steady-state}] [N.NFkBDNA]$$

763
764

References

References

1   Hatton, I. A. *et al.* The human cell count and size distribution. *Proceedings of the*
National Academy of Sciences **120**, e2303077120, doi:10.1073/pnas.2303077120
(2023).
2   Hoesel, B. & Schmid, J. A. The complexity of NF-κB signaling in inflammation and
cancer. *Molecular Cancer* **12**, 86, doi:10.1186/1476-4598-12-86 (2013).
3   Taniguchi, K. & Karin, M. NF-κB, inflammation, immunity and cancer: coming of age.
Nature Reviews Immunology **18**, 309-324, doi:10.1038/nri.2017.142 (2018).
4   Staudt, L. M. Oncogenic activation of NF-kappaB. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* **2**,
a000109, doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a000109 (2010).
5   Raj, A. & van Oudenaarden, A. Nature, nurture, or chance: stochastic gene
expression and its consequences. *Cell* **135**, 216-226,
doi:10.1016/j.cell.2008.09.050 (2008).
6   Elowitz, M. B., Levine, A. J., Siggia, E. D. & Swain, P. S. Stochastic gene expression in
a single cell. *Science* **297**, 1183-1186, doi:10.1126/science.1070919 (2002).
7   Wen, J. D. *et al.* Following translation by single ribosomes one codon at a time.
Nature **452**, 598-603, doi:10.1038/nature06716 (2008).
8   Livingston, N. M. *et al.* Bursting translation on single mRNAs in live cells. *Mol Cell*
83, 2276-2289 e2211, doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2023.05.019 (2023).
9   Son, M., Wang, A. G., Keisham, B. & Tay, S. Processing stimulus dynamics by the NF-
κB network in single cells. *Experimental & Molecular Medicine* **55**, 2531-2540,
doi:10.1038/s12276-023-01133-7 (2023).
10   Micheau, O. & Tschopp, J. Induction of TNF receptor I-mediated apoptosis via two
sequential signaling complexes. *Cell* **114**, 181-190 (2003).
11   Barnhart, B. C. & Peter, M. E. The TNF receptor 1: a split personality complex. *Cell*
114, 148-150, doi:10.1016/s0092-8674(03)00561-0 (2003).
12   Laplantine, E. *et al.* NEMO specifically recognizes K63-linked poly-ubiquitin chains
through a new bipartite ubiquitin-binding domain. *EMBO J* **28**, 2885-2895,
doi:10.1038/emboj.2009.241 (2009).
13   Clark, K., Nanda, S. & Cohen, P. Molecular control of the NEMO family of ubiquitin-
binding proteins. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **14**, 673-685, doi:10.1038/nrm3644 (2013).
14   Haas, T. L. *et al.* Recruitment of the linear ubiquitin chain assembly complex
stabilizes the TNF-R1 signaling complex and is required for TNF-mediated gene
induction. *Mol Cell* **36**, 831-844, doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2009.10.013 (2009).
15   Kim, A. H., Chiknas, P. M. & Lee, R. E. C. Ubiquitin: Not just a one-way ticket to the
proteasome, but a therapeutic dial to fine-tune the molecular landscape of disease.
Clin Transl Med **14**, e1769, doi:10.1002/ctm2.1769 (2024).
16   Tarantino, N. *et al.* TNF and IL-1 exhibit distinct ubiquitin requirements for inducing
NEMO-IKK supramolecular structures. *J Cell Biol* **204**, 231-245,
doi:10.1083/jcb.201307172 (2014).
17   Cruz, J. A. *et al.* A variable-gain stochastic pooling motif mediates information
transfer from receptor assemblies into NF-kappaB. *Sci Adv* **7**,
doi:10.1126/sciadv.abi9410 (2021).

18   Chen, Z. J. Ubiquitination in signaling to and activation of IKK. *Immunol Rev* **246**, 95-
106, doi:10.1111/j.1600-065X.2012.01108.x (2012).
19   Israel, A. The IKK complex, a central regulator of NF-kappaB activation. *Cold Spring*
Harb Perspect Biol **2**, a000158, doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a000158 (2010).
20   Nelson, D. E. *et al.* Oscillations in NF-κB Signaling Control the Dynamics of Gene
Expression. *Science* **306**, 704-708, doi:doi:10.1126/science.1099962 (2004).
21   Ashall, L. *et al.* Pulsatile Stimulation Determines Timing and Specificity of NF-κB-
Dependent Transcription. *Science* **324**, 242-246, doi:10.1126/science.1164860
(2009).
22   Cheng, Q. J. *et al.* NF-κB dynamics determine the stimulus specificity of epigenomic
reprogramming in macrophages. *Science* **372**, 1349-1353,
doi:doi:10.1126/science.abc0269 (2021).
23   Lee, R. E., Qasaimeh, M. A., Xia, X., Juncker, D. & Gaudet, S. NF-kappaB signalling
and cell fate decisions in response to a short pulse of tumour necrosis factor. *Sci*
Rep **6**, 39519, doi:10.1038/srep39519 (2016).
24   Mokashi, C. S., Schipper, D. L., Qasaimeh, M. A. & Lee, R. E. C. A System for Analog
Control of Cell Culture Dynamics to Reveal Capabilities of Signaling Networks.
iScience **19**, 586-596, doi:10.1016/j.isci.2019.08.010 (2019).
25   Thiemicke, A., Jashnsaz, H., Li, G. & Neuert, G. Generating kinetic environments to
study dynamic cellular processes in single cells. *Sci Rep* **9**, 10129,
doi:10.1038/s41598-019-46438-8 (2019).
26   Dettinger, P. *et al.* Automated Microfluidic System for Dynamic Stimulation and
Tracking of Single Cells. *Anal Chem* **90**, 10695-10700,
doi:10.1021/acs.analchem.8b00312 (2018).
27   Lee, R. E. C., Qasaimeh, M. A., Xia, X., Juncker, D. & Gaudet, S. NF-κB signalling and
cell fate decisions in response to a short pulse of tumour necrosis factor. *Scientific*
Reports **6**, 39519, doi:10.1038/srep39519 (2016).
28   Thiemicke, A. & Neuert, G. Kinetics of osmotic stress regulate a cell fate switch of
cell survival. *Sci Adv* **7**, doi:10.1126/sciadv.abe1122 (2021).
29   Son, M. *et al.* NF-kappaB responds to absolute differences in cytokine
concentrations. *Sci Signal* **14**, doi:10.1126/scisignal.aaz4382 (2021).
30   Blum, Y. *et al.* Temporal perturbation of ERK dynamics reveals network architecture
of FGF2/MAPK signaling. *Mol Syst Biol* **15**, e8947, doi:10.15252/msb.20198947
(2019).
31   Ryu, H. *et al.* Frequency modulation of ERK activation dynamics rewires cell fate.
Mol Syst Biol **11**, 838, doi:10.15252/msb.20156458 (2015).
32   Lee, Robin E. C., Walker, Sarah R., Savery, K., Frank, David A. & Gaudet, S. Fold
Change of Nuclear NF-κB Determines TNF-Induced Transcription in Single Cells.
Molecular Cell **53**, 867-879, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2014.01.026
(2014).
33   Zhang, Q. *et al.* NF-κB Dynamics Discriminate between TNF Doses in Single Cells.
Cell systems **5**, 638-645.e635, doi:10.1016/j.cels.2017.10.011 (2017).

34   Kellogg, R. A., Tian, C., Lipniacki, T., Quake, S. R. & Tay, S. Digital signaling decouples
activation probability and population heterogeneity. *Elife* **4**, e08931,
doi:10.7554/eLife.08931 (2015).
35   Hazuda, D. J., Lee, J. C. & Young, P. R. The kinetics of interleukin 1 secretion from
activated monocytes. Differences between interleukin 1 alpha and interleukin 1
beta. *J Biol Chem* **263**, 8473-8479 (1988).
36   Kudo, S., Mizuno, K., Hirai, Y. & Shimizu, T. Clearance and tissue distribution of
recombinant human interleukin 1 beta in rats. *Cancer Res* **50**, 5751-5755 (1990).
37   Chapman, P. B. *et al.* Clinical pharmacology of recombinant human tumor necrosis
factor in patients with advanced cancer. *J Clin Oncol* **5**, 1942-1951,
doi:10.1200/JCO.1987.5.12.1942 (1987).
38   Oyler-Yaniv, J. *et al.* Catch and Release of Cytokines Mediated by Tumor
Phosphatidylserine Converts Transient Exposure into Long-Lived Inflammation. *Mol*
Cell **66**, 635-647 e637, doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2017.05.011 (2017).
39   Hoffmann, A., Levchenko, A., Scott, M. L. & Baltimore, D. The IκB-NF-κB Signaling
Module: Temporal Control and Selective Gene Activation. *Science* **298**, 1241-1245,
doi:doi:10.1126/science.1071914 (2002).
40   Kennedy, J. & Eberhart, R. in *Proceedings of ICNN'95 - International Conference on*
Neural Networks. 1942-1948 vol.1944.
41   Natoli, G., Saccani, S., Bosisio, D. & Marazzi, I. Interactions of NF-kappaB with
chromatin: the art of being at the right place at the right time. *Nat Immunol* **6**, 439-
445, doi:10.1038/ni1196 (2005).
42   Martone, R. *et al.* Distribution of NF-kappaB-binding sites across human
chromosome 22. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **100**, 12247-12252,
doi:10.1073/pnas.2135255100 (2003).
43   Brignall, R., Moody, A. T., Mathew, S. & Gaudet, S. Considering Abundance, Affinity,
and Binding Site Availability in the NF-kappaB Target Selection Puzzle. *Front*
Immunol **10**, 609, doi:10.3389/fimmu.2019.00609 (2019).
44   Zhao, B. *et al.* The NF-kappaB genomic landscape in lymphoblastoid B cells. *Cell*
Rep **8**, 1595-1606, doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2014.07.037 (2014).
45   Link, V. M. *et al.* Analysis of Genetically Diverse Macrophages Reveals Local and
Domain-wide Mechanisms that Control Transcription Factor Binding and Function.
Cell **173**, 1796-1809 e1717, doi:10.1016/j.cell.2018.04.018 (2018).
46   Stormberg, T., Filliaux, S., Baughman, H. E. R., Komives, E. A. & Lyubchenko, Y. L.
Transcription factor NF-κB unravels nucleosomes. *Biochim Biophys Acta Gen Subj*
1865, 129934, doi:10.1016/j.bbagen.2021.129934 (2021).
47   Lone, I. N. *et al.* Binding of NF-kappaB to nucleosomes: effect of translational
positioning, nucleosome remodeling and linker histone H1. *PLoS Genet* **9**,
e1003830, doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1003830 (2013).
48   Sen, S., Cheng, Z., Sheu, K. M., Chen, Y. H. & Hoffmann, A. Gene Regulatory
Strategies that Decode the Duration of NFkappaB Dynamics Contribute to LPS-
versus TNF-Specific Gene Expression. *Cell Syst* **10**, 169-182 e165,
doi:10.1016/j.cels.2019.12.004 (2020).

49   Hansen, J. L., Loell, K. J. & Cohen, B. A. A test of the pioneer factor hypothesis using
894   ectopic liver gene activation. *Elife* **11**, doi:10.7554/eLife.73358 (2022).

895   50   Christman, J. K. 5-Azacytidine and 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine as inhibitors of DNA
896   methylation: mechanistic studies and their implications for cancer therapy.
897   *Oncogene* **21**, 5483-5495, doi:10.1038/sj.onc.1205699 (2002).

898   51   Werner, S. L., Barken, D. & Hoffmann, A. Stimulus specificity of gene expression
899   programs determined by temporal control of IKK activity. *Science* **309**, 1857-1861,
900   doi:10.1126/science.1113319 (2005).

901   52   Bergqvist, S. *et al*. Kinetic enhancement of NF-kappaBxDNA dissociation by
902   IkappaBalpha. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **106**, 19328-19333,
903   doi:10.1073/pnas.0908797106 (2009).

904   53   Grell, M., Wajant, H., Zimmermann, G. & Scheurich, P. The type 1 receptor (CD120a)
905   is the high-affinity receptor for soluble tumor necrosis factor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S*
906   *A* **95**, 570-575, doi:10.1073/pnas.95.2.570 (1998).

907   54   Mizel, S. B., Kilian, P. L., Lewis, J. C., Paganelli, K. A. & Chizzonite, R. A. The
908   interleukin 1 receptor. Dynamics of interleukin 1 binding and internalization in T
909   cells and fibroblasts. *J Immunol* **138**, 2906-2912 (1987).

910   55   Watanabe, N. *et al*. Continuous internalization of tumor necrosis factor receptors in
911   a human myosarcoma cell line. *J Biol Chem* **263**, 10262-10266 (1988).

912   56   Werner, S. L. *et al*. Encoding NF-kappaB temporal control in response to TNF:
913   distinct roles for the negative regulators IkappaBalpha and A20. *Genes &*
914   *development* **22**, 2093-2101, doi:10.1101/gad.1680708 (2008).

915   57   Siggers, T. *et al*. Principles of dimer-specific gene regulation revealed by a
916   comprehensive characterization of NF-kappaB family DNA binding. *Nat Immunol*
917   **13**, 95-102, doi:10.1038/ni.2151 (2011).

918   58   Weigelin, B. *et al*. Cytotoxic T cells are able to efficiently eliminate cancer cells by
919   additive cytotoxicity. *Nat Commun* **12**, 5217, doi:10.1038/s41467-021-25282-3
920   (2021).

921   59   Weigelin, B. & Friedl, P. T cell-mediated additive cytotoxicity - death by multiple
922   bullets. *Trends Cancer* **8**, 980-987, doi:10.1016/j.trecan.2022.07.007 (2022).

923   60   Tian, B., Nowak, D. E. & Brasier, A. R. A TNF-induced gene expression program under
924   oscillatory NF-kappaB control. *BMC Genomics* **6**, 137, doi:10.1186/1471-2164-6-
925   137 (2005).

926   61   Wolf, B. K. *et al*. Cooperation of chromatin remodeling SWI/SNF complex and
927   pioneer factor AP-1 shapes 3D enhancer landscapes. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* **30**, 10-21,
928   doi:10.1038/s41594-022-00880-x (2023).

929   62   Vierbuchen, T. *et al*. AP-1 Transcription Factors and the BAF Complex Mediate
930   Signal-Dependent Enhancer Selection. *Mol Cell* **68**, 1067-1082 e1012,
931   doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2017.11.026 (2017).

932   63   Guo, Y., Kowalczyk, G. J. & Lee, R. E. C. Label and quantify mRNA molecules in live
933   cell experiments using SunRISER and dNEMO. *STAR Protoc* **3**, 101630,
934   doi:10.1016/j.xpro.2022.101630 (2022).

935   64   Kowalczyk, G. J. *et al*. dNEMO: a tool for quantification of mRNA and punctate
936   structures in time-lapse images of single cells. *Bioinformatics* **37**, 677-683,
937   doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btaa874 (2020).
938

Acknowledgements

940 We thank other members of the Lee lab and colleagues in the Department of Computational

941 and Systems Biology for many helpful discussions. This work was supported by generous

942 funding to R.E.C.L. from NIH grant R35-GM119462.

Figure legends

Fig. 1: NEMO features determine same-cell NF-kB responses to a single cytokine pulse.

A. Schematic of a two-inlet, one outlet microfluidic chip with fluid flow from left to right. Inlet 1 (I1) contains a mixture of cytokine, dye, and medium, while inlet 2 (I2) contains only media. The fluorescent dye is used exclusively to establish the position of the cytokine-containing stream. U2OS cells are cultured and imaged within the central cell culture channel. On average, 22 cells were imaged for each condition. **B.** Image of the custom gravity pump. Inlet reservoirs I1 and I2 are connected to the orange basins and the outlet connected to the gray basin. The gravity pump dynamically adjusts the relative heights of the basins to control fluid flow. When the I1 basin is positioned lower than I2, cells are exposed to media only (top) and when I1 is higher, cells are exposed to cytokine (bottom). **C.** Time-lapse images of CRISPR-modified U2OS cells lines containing fluorescent protein fusions from their endogenous loci (left; see also Supplementary Movie 1). Quantification of upstream activated receptor complex measured through the formation and tracking of single EGFP-NEMO puncta (top). Quantification of downstream activation of the NF-κB (RelA) transcriptional system calculated by the fold change of mCh-RelA fluorescence in the nucleus (bottom). **D.** Single cell time-courses for EGFP-NEMO spot numbers and nuclear mCh-RelA nuclear fold change in response to a single pulse of IL-1 at 10 ng/ml with varying pulse durations. Light-colored trajectories represent individual cells, while bold trajectories represent the average response. **E.** The area under the curve (AUC) for the number of IL-1 induced spots (left) and the fold change of nuclear RelA (right) increases with pulse duration. **F.** Same-cell correlations from dual-reporter cells show the aggregate AUC of activated receptor

complexes and downstream transcriptional activity display a monotonic relationship

(Spearman ρ = 0.85).

Fig. 2: NF-kB responses to a dose-conserving cytokine pulse train are enhanced.

A. Single cell time-courses for EGFP-NEMO spot numbers and nuclear mCh-RelA nuclear

fold change responses to multiple short pulses. Single 6- and 15-minute pulses are shown

as reference points, representing equivalent and greater than twice the total cytokine

exposure, respectively, compared to the multiple short pulses (yellow highlighted

conditions; see also Supplementary Movies 1 and 2). On average, 20 single cells were

imaged per condition. **B.** The area under the curve (AUC) analysis of NEMO spot numbers

(left) shows no significant difference between single and multiple pulse stimulation

patterns. For comparison, the single 6- and 15-minute pulses do show a significant

difference (left). By contrast, the AUC for nuclear RelA fold change indicates a significant

difference between single and multiple pulse stimulation patterns (right). Median and

interquartile ranges are shown. **P<10^{-2}, student's t-test. **C.** The aggregate AUC of activated

receptor complexes and downstream transcriptional activity is not monotonic when

responses to multiple short pulses are combined.

Fig. 3: Temporal features of NEMO spot numbers correlate with NF-kB and zero-order

export kinetics following a cytokine pulse train.

A. Schematic of a typical NEMO spot trajectory highlighting features for the 'time to

maximum' (t_{max}) and 'adaptation time' (t_{adapt}). **B.** Boxplots showing t_{max} for single-cell

trajectories under 6-minute single and multi-pulse stimulation. **C.** Boxplots showing t_{adapt} for

single-cell trajectories under 6-minute single and multi-pulse stimulation. **D.** Schematic of

a typical nuclear RelA fold change trajectory highlighting the max fold change and the area

under the curve (AUC). Additionally, examples for zero-order and first-order kinetics are

illustrated for nuclear RelA export. **E.** Same cell correlations for time-courses of nuclear

RelA exit rates scores and the t_{max} of NEMO. **F.** Same cell correlations for time-courses of

nuclear RelA exit rates scores and the t_{adapt} of NEMO (min)

Fig. 4: A model with DNA-binding and chromatin remodeling recapitulates emergent

properties of average cellular responses to dynamic stimuli.

A. Schematic of the mechanistic model fitting strategy. As input, the model uses

experimental averages of EGFP-NEMO time-courses from four conditions, chosen to tune

the model to the emergent property. Simulated NF-kB responses are compared against

experimental results and used as a cost function for particle swarm optimization (PSO). **B.**

Results of PSO from 500 replicates for each model architecture. Each model

parameterization is evaluated based on the sum of squared error (SSE) to the 4 training

conditions (x-axis), to the SSE of averages from the 5 validation conditions not used for PSO

(y-axis), and emergent property error score (colorbar). D2FC optimized models were limited

to the quadrant highlighted in pink. The red star indicates the overall best $D2FC^2$ model.

1006

Fig. 5: $D2FC^2$ accurately predicts NF-kB responses using single cell CI data as inputs

A. Simulated single-cell NF-kB predictions using the best-performing $D2FC^2$ model using

single-cell EGFP-NEMO as model inputs. **B and C.** Boxplots comparing the simulated and

experimental AUC of nuclear RelA for single-pulse (B) and multi-pulse (C) dosing schedules.

Between experiments and D2FC^2 simulations, the model shows remarkable similarity where

only one condition has a statistically distinct difference (marked with *; $p < 0.05$, student's

t-test). **D.** Proportion of single-cell predictions classified as excellent, high, or low quality

(see also, Supplementary Fig. 7) compared to experimental data across different dosing

schemes for the best-performing model (left). Overall performance of the top 10 models in

predicting single-cell trajectories aggregated across all experimental conditions (right). See

also Supplementary Table 3.

1018

Fig. 6: D2FC^2 accurately predicts cytokine-induced NF-kB responses following

exposure to hypomethylating azacytidine.

A. Simulated estimate of baseline nuclear RelA (relative to original) in response increasing

basal chromatin opening. **B.** Simulated nuclear RelA (fold change) using the average EGFP-

NEMO time course from a single 6-min pulse as an input. Different colors represent

indicated amounts of basal chromatin opening. **C.** Experimental measurements of basal

nuclear RelA of cells exposed to 5 uM of Azacytidine for 3 and 6 days, respectively. **D.** Single-

cell trajectories of nuclear RelA fold change for cells exposed to a single 6-minute pulse of

IL-1 following azacytidine exposure for 3 or 6 days (top and bottom, respectively). Bold lines

represent the average trajectory, and the shaded region is +/- 1 standard deviation. On

average 26 cells were imaged in each condition. See also Supplementary Fig. 8.

1030

Fig. 7: Features of NF-kB responses show different sensitivities to features of CI

A. Schematic illustrating how NEMO features encoded by temporal stimulation impacts binding site availability and the duration of NF-κB retention. **B.** Simulated IKK trajectories varying the peak of NEMO numbers (top, peak), adaptation time of NEMO numbers (middle, t_{adapt}) independently. Combined features are used to generate simulated time-courses that scan the encoding space of NEMO puncta (bottom). **C.** Heatmap of: simulated peak nuclear RelA (fold change) with varying peak NEMO and adaptation times (top-left); Nuclear RelA export scores for simulated responses, where positive values indicate increasingly zero-order scores and negative values indicating the strength of first-order scores (top-right); Relative chromatin permissiveness, where higher values represent more open chromatin (bottom-left); and, results from a sub-model used to simulate the steady-state fraction of free nuclear NF-kB changes with overall nuclear NF-kB and chromatin permissiveness (bottom-right).

Time-varying stimuli that prolong IKK activation promote nuclear remodeling and mechanistic switching of NF-κB dynamics

Authors

Steven W. Smeal[1], Chaitanya S. Mokashi[1,2], A. Hyun Kim[1], P. Murdo Chiknas[1], Robin E. C. Lee[1,3,†]

Affiliations

[1]Department of Computational and Systems Biology, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15213, USA

[2]current address Altos Labs, Redwood City, CA, 94065, USA

[3]Center for Systems Immunology, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15213, USA

Other footnotes

[†]Corresponding Author: robinlee@pitt.edu

Supplementary files

Supplementary File 1: STL file for Y-channel microfluidic device. The included file can be

3D printed and used as a mold to produce the PDMS-based microfluidic device used in this

study.

Supplementary File 2: D2FC^2 model files. The included model files are used for D2FC^2 and

related simulations. See also the lab GitHub page for most up to date information

(https://github.com/recleelab/D2FCSquared/)

Supplementary movies

Supplementary movie 1: Time-lapse images of CRISPR-modified U2OS cells. Fluorescent protein fusions at their endogenous loci are shown EGFP-NEMO (left) and mCherry-RelA (right). 60x images captured the response of two cells exposed to continuous to a saturating 1000 ng/mL of IL-1.

Supplementary movie 2: Time-lapse images of dual-reporter cells exposed to a single pulse. Dynamics of EGFP-NEMO (left) and mCherry-RelA (right) in response to a single 6-minute pulse of 10 ng/mL IL-1 in the microfluidic device. Cells display typical adaptive behavior within 100 minutes of stimulation.

Supplementary movie 3: Time-lapse images of dual-reporter cells exposed to four 1.5-minute pulses. Dynamics of EGFP-NEMO (left) and mCherry-RelA (right) in the microfluidic device exposed to 4x1.5-minute pulse of 10 ng/mL IL-1 with 5-minute gaps. Top cells displays prolonged EGFP-NEMO puncta and zero-order export kinetics, whereas the lower cell displays less-sustained EGFP-NEMO puncta and adapts within 180 minutes of stimulation.

Supplementary figures

Supplementary Figure 1: Dynamic stimulation device and cell responses to a single pulse

A. Schematic of the microfluidic chip as designed in the Autodesk Fusion 360 software highlighting the dimensions of the chip for the X, Y, and Z axis, units in mm. **B.** Image of the microfluidic chip with PDMS attached to a glass cover slide, coin for scale. Green food coloring was imaged to highlight the inlets, chamber, and outlets for image purposes only. **C.** Nuclear RelA export scores (see methods) for experimental trajectories of varying single pulse duration. **D.** Pairwise comparison of p-values for conditions in (C), student's t-test.

A

B

C

D

p-val	0.5 min	2 min	6 min	15 min	30 min
0.5 min	1	0.0002	3E-06	6E-07	1E-08
2 min	0.0002	1	0.4	0.004	3E-06
6 min	3E-06	0.4	1	0.007	3E-07
15 min	6E-07	0.004	0.007	1	0.0005
30 min	1E-08	3E-06	3E-07	0.0005	1

Supplementary Figure 2: NF-kB responses to a dose-conserving cytokine pulse train are enhanced for two and three pulse stimuli.

A. Boxplots of single-cell experimental time courses showing AUCs of NEMO spots (left) and Nuclear RelA (right). A 5-minute gap time between three 2-minute pulses of IL-1 at 10 ng/mL causes a significant enhancement of nuclear RelA. Increasing the gap time beyond 5-minutes has diminishing returns. **B.** Boxplots of single-cell experimental time courses as in panel A for two 3-minute pulses. Increasing the gap duration up to 15 minutes enhances the AUC of nuclear RelA. Boxplots show the median value and interquartile ranges. On average, 20 cells were imaged for each condition. P-values indicated for student's t-test.

Supplementary Figure 3: KYM-1 cells exposed to a pulse train of TNF enhances the NF-kB response

A. Time lapse images of KYM-1 stably expressing mVen-RelA fusion exposed to TNF at 1 ng/mL as a single 6-minute pulse (top) or two 3-minute pulses with a 9-minute gap (bottom).

B. Single cell trajectories of the intensity of nuclear RelA (fold change) for KYM-1 cells exposed to a continuous (left), single 6-minute (middle), and two 3-minute (right) pulses of TNF at 1 ng/mL. Orange bold lines represent mean and shaded region represents +/- 1 standard deviation of single cell trajectories. **C.** Box plots of the AUC of nuclear RelA (fold change) for varying the gap length of two 3-minute pulses (left) and two 2-minute pulses. Boxplots show the median value and interquartile ranges.

Supplementary Figure 4: Dose-conserving pulse trains switch the export mechanism of nuclear RelA to a pseudo-zero-order process.

A. Box plot of the maximum nuclear RelA (fold change) of single cell trajectories given 10 ng/ml IL-1 for single and multiple short pulses. Although significant for 2 of the 5 conditions, the trend of increased nuclear RelA is only very subtle and does not explain the enhanced AUC in response to a cytokine pulse train. **B.** Example trajectories highlighting the exit rate score, used to distinguish first-order and zero-order export kinetics. Experimental data are representative single cell trajectories (solid red line) and dashed lines represent models of best fit for zero and first order decay. Positive scores represent zero-order export kinetics, and negative scores represent first-order kinetics. See methods for details. **C.** Jitter plot of exit rate scores for individual cell trajectories of the single- and multi-pulse IL-1 stimulation patterns (top). Pairwise comparisons indicate p-value for student's t-test (bottom).

Supplementary Figure 5: Original D2FC and optimized parameterizations do not recapitulate the emergent property.

A and B. Box plots comparing the D2FC simulated results of the AUC nuclear RelA of the single (A) and multi-pulse (B) stimulation pattern. D2FC model is using original parameter set and D2FC optimized is the overall best set of parameters found from the particle swarm optimization. Statistically significant differences between models and experiment are indicated (*; $p < 0.05$, student's t-test). The D2FC recapitulates responses to a single pulse, but not to pulse trains. Remarkably, the optimized D2FC fails to recapitulate most conditions. The relative failure of the optimized D2FC is because PSO using the emergent property (fits to averages from four selected conditions: control, 1x0.5-min, 4x1.5-min, 1x30-min) as an objective function effectively distributed the error across conditions, resulting in a model that marginally improves responses to a pulse train at the expense of even poorer fits to other conditions. **C.** Results of the D2FC, D2FC optimized, and $D2FC^2$ comparing simulated results (solid lines) with the averages of single-cell trajectories (circles) in each of three conditions. Simulation results for the D2FC optimized, and $D2FC^2$ are for lowest-error parameterizations following particle swarm optimization.

Supplementary Figure 6: Post-hoc analysis of particle swarm optimization results for the D2FC^2.

A. Box plots of the parameters identified in 500 iterations of the D2FC^2 optimization using particle swarm. The y-axis is normalized relative to the parameter limits to account for differences in parameter orders. Importantly, for most parameters, there were solutions following particle swarm optimization that used the full range of values from the prior distribution suggesting that the parameter space has been effectively swarmed. **B.** Heat map of parameters for the top 10 models for the D2FC^2 normalized to the explored parameter space. Colorbar represents the normalized parameter value relative to the prior distribution (Supplementary Table 4). For most parameters there is variance between the models indicating that comparable results can be achieved via distinct parameter combinations.

Supplementary Figure 7: Quality of fit to single cell trajectories for the top D2FC^2 model parameterizations.

A. Elbow plot showing the fraction of non-acceptable fits as a function of the threshold for defining an acceptable single-cell trajectory. The elbow point, mathematically identified as the point furthest from a linear line connecting the first and last values (see Methods), was used to set a threshold between high- and poor-quality fits. A strict threshold of half the elbow point was applied to identify single cell simulations fits that are considered excellent.

B. Example simulated single cell trajectories highlighting the excellent, high, and poor single cell trajectories compared to the experimental data.

Supplementary Figure 8: 5-Azacytidine stimulation significantly reduces features of NF-kB responses.

A. Box plots of the maximum nuclear RelA (fold change) for single cell trajectories exposed to 5-azacytidine for indicated duration before exposure to a single 6-minute pulse of 10 ng/ml IL-1. **B.** Box plots of the AUC for nuclear RelA (fold change) for single cell trajectories exposed to 5-azacytidine for indicated duration before exposure to a single 6-minute pulse of 10 ng/ml IL-1. P-values represent a student's t-test.

Supplementary tables

Supplementary Table 1: Summarizes reactions for the D2FC^2 model where "C." and "N." prefixes denote species is in the cytoplasm and nucleus, respectively. The column labeled "name" represents the parameter influencing the reaction rate. The reported values are from the best D2FC^2 model. The rows highlighted in gray represent added model mechanisms that differentiate between D2FC and D2FC^2. Parameter kv (yellow; value = 3.3) accounts for subcellular compartment volumes between the cytoplasm and nucleus, applied to species traveling between the compartments. DCoop, NPio, NEnh1, NEnh2, and IKKSpots(t) are functions defined in supplementary table 2. Parameter ka (red) was used to optimize the original D2FC model to interface directly with NEMO spot numbers.

Reaction	Name	Value	Rate
$C.IkBa + C.NFkB \rightarrow C.IkBaNFkB$	ka1a	5.854E-01	$ka1a * [C.IkBa] * [C.NFkB]$
$C.IkBaNFkB \rightarrow C.IkBa + C.NFkB$	kd1a	5.000E-02	$kd1a * [C.IkBaNFkB]$
$C.NFkB \rightarrow N.NFkB$	ki1	5.403E-03	$kv * ki1 * [C.NFkB]$
$N.NFkB \rightarrow C.NFkB$	ke1	9.657E-05	$kv * ke1 * [N.NFkB]$
$N.NFkB + N.IkBa \rightarrow N.IkBaNFkB$	f_ka1a	4.25E-02	$f\_ka1a * ka1a * [N.NFkB] * [N.IkBa]$
$N.IkBaNFkB \rightarrow N.NFkB + N.IkBa$	f_kd1a	2.625E-02	$f\_kd1a * kd1a * [N.IkBaNFkB]$
$N.NFkB \rightarrow N.NFkBDNA$	ka1d	7.070E-04	$ka1d * DCoop * NPio * [N.NFkB]$
$N.NFkBDNA \rightarrow N.NFkB$	kd1d	6.684E-05	$kd1d * [N.NFkBDNA]$
$N.IkBa + N.NFkBDNA \rightarrow N.IkBaNFkB$	ka2a	1.320E-02	$ka2a * [N.IkBa] * [N.NFkBDNA]$
$N.IkBa \rightarrow \emptyset$	c4a	5.000E-04	$c4a * [N.IkBa]$
$C.IkBa \rightarrow \emptyset$	c4a	5.000E-04	$c4a * [C.IkBa]$
$N.IkBaNFkB \rightarrow C.IkBaNFkB$	ke2a	8.353E-02	$kv * ke2a * [N.IkBaNFkB]$
$C.IkBa \rightarrow N.IkBa$	ki3a	6.638E-03	$kv * ki3a * [C.IkBa]$
$N.IkBa \rightarrow C.IkBa$	ke3a	2.457E-03	$kv * ke3a * [N.IkBa]$
$C.IkBaNFkB \rightarrow C.NFkB$	c5a	2.200E-05	$c5a * [C.IkBaNFkB]$
$C.IKK \rightarrow C.IKKi$	ki	1.156E-02	$ki * [C.IKK]$
$C.IKKi \rightarrow C.IKKn$	kp	6.464E-05	$kp * [C.IKKi] * A20I$
$C.IKKn \rightarrow C.IKK$	ka	2.409E-06	$TR * ka * IKKSpots(t) * [C.IKKn]$
$\emptyset \rightarrow C.tIkBa$	rs_a	6.852E-08	$rs\_a * (1 + NEnh1)$
$C.tIkBa \rightarrow \emptyset$	c3a	3.000E-04	$c3a * [C.tIkBa]$
$\emptyset \rightarrow C.IkBa$	c2a	5.000E-01	$c2a * C.tIkBa$
$\emptyset \rightarrow C.tCompetitor$	rs_a	6.852E-08	$rs\_a * c1a * NEnh2$
$C.tCompetitor \rightarrow \emptyset$	c6a	4.290E-05	$c6a * [C.tCompetitor]$
$\emptyset \rightarrow C.Competitor$	c2a	5.000E-01	$c2a * [C.tCompetitor]$
$C.Competitor \rightarrow \emptyset$	c4a	5.000E-04	$c4a * [C.Competitor]$
$\emptyset \rightarrow C.tA20$	c1	2.000E-07	$c1 * NEen3$
$C.tA20 \rightarrow \emptyset$	c3	4.000E-04	$c3 * [C.Competitor]$
$\emptyset \rightarrow C.A20$	c2	5.000E-01	$c2 * [C.A20]$
$C.A20 \rightarrow \emptyset$	c4	4.500E-03	$c4 * [C.A20]$
$C.IkBa \rightarrow C.pIkBa$	kc1a	4.998E-01	$kc1a * [C.IKK] * [C.IkBa]$
$C.pIkBa \rightarrow \emptyset$	kt1a	5.796E-03	$kt1a * [C.pIkBa]$
$C.IkBaNFkB \rightarrow pIkBaNFkB$	kc2a	4.071E-01	$kc2a * [C.IKK] * [C.IkBaNFkB]$
$C.pIkBaNFkB \rightarrow C.NFkB$	kt2a	1.274E-04	$kt2a * [C.pIkBaNFkB]$

Supplementary Table 2: Algebraic equations used in the ordinary differential equations as shown in Supplementary Table 1 and used as outputs to the model.

Name	Equation	Notes
$DCoop$	$$\dfrac{[N.NFkB]^{h2}}{(kdNFkB)^{h2} + [N.NFkB]^{h2}}$$	Represents the cooperative effects of NFkB binding to DNA.
$NPio$	$$1 + ps * \dfrac{[N.NFkBDNA]^{h3}}{(kdP)^{h3} + [N.NFkBDNA]^{h3}}$$	Represents pioneering effect of NFKB can have on increasing the availed sites
$A20I$	$$\dfrac{kbA20}{kbA20 + C.A20}$$	Decrease rate of inactivated IKK converting to neutral IKK.
IKKSpots(t)	$$IKK(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{4} a_i e^{\left[-\left(\frac{(x-b_i)}{c_i}\right)^2\right]}$$	Parameters a_i, b_i, and c_i are fit to an experimental IKK spot profile. See supplementary information for complete set of parameters.
$NEnh1$	$$c1a * \dfrac{[N.NFkB]^{h}}{k^{h} + [N.NFkB]^{h}}$$	Increased rate of IkB transcription due to NFkB retained in nucleus.
$NEnh2$	$$c1a * \dfrac{\left(\frac{[N.NFkB]}{k}\right)^{h+1}}{1 + \left(\frac{[N.NFkB]}{k}\right)^{h+1} + \left(\frac{[Competitor]}{k4}\right)^{h+1}}$$	Increased rate of Competitor transcription where the competitor itself can reduce its own rate of transcription.
$NEen3$	$$c1 * \dfrac{\left(\frac{[N.NFkB]}{k}\right)^{h+1}}{1 + \left(\frac{[N.NFkB]}{k}\right)^{h+1} + \left(\frac{[Competitor]}{k2}\right)^{h+1}}$$	Increased rate of A20 transcription deepened upon NFkB nuclear localization and the rate can be reduced by competitor formation.
$N.NFkB_{Total}$	$[N.NFkB] + [N.IkBaNFkB] + [N.NFkBDNA]$	Total amount of NFkB in the nucleus including all forms which include free, bound to IkBa and bound to DNA
NFkB (Fold Change)	$$\dfrac{[N.NFkB_{Total}]}{N.NFkB_{Total}(t=0)}$$	NFKB fold change that is directly comparable to the single cell data.

Supplementary Table 3: Parameterizations of the top 10 D2FC^2 models found through particle swarm optimization.

	Top 10 D2FC^2 parameterizations									
Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ka1a	5.854E-01	1.018E+00	2.608E-02	9.137E-01	2.505E-01	6.583E-01	8.256E-02	4.916E-01	2.804E+00	1.209E-01
kd1a	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02	5.000E-02
ki1	5.403E-03	2.576E-02	1.068E-02	1.123E-02	5.843E-03	7.873E-03	7.284E-03	1.025E-02	2.519E-02	3.303E-03
ke1	9.657E-05	2.356E-04	2.576E-04	2.524E-05	1.353E-05	1.599E-05	1.788E-05	5.427E-06	2.994E-05	1.522E-05
f_ka1a	4.250E-02	2.148E-02	2.071E-02	3.878E-02	9.525E-02	1.620E-02	1.156E-02	4.217E-01	9.999E-01	1.340E-02
f_kd1a	2.625E-02	1.000E-02	6.686E-01	1.396E-02	9.097E-02	1.793E-02	3.747E-02	6.843E-01	5.618E-02	9.981E-01
ka1d	7.070E-04	1.147E-02	6.930E-05	4.376E-04	1.353E-04	5.532E-03	5.327E-03	1.122E-03	1.013E-03	1.336E-04
ps	7.951E+03	2.368E+03	6.744E+05	3.681E+05	2.878E+04	9.531E+03	1.154E+04	2.670E+05	1.932E+01	2.816E+05
h3	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00	1.000E+00
kdP	3.162E+00	1.123E+00	1.079E+00	1.691E+00	1.599E+00	3.162E+00	2.968E+00	3.160E+00	1.011E+00	2.797E+00
h2	1.500E+00	2.000E+00	1.641E+00	1.955E+00	1.502E+00	1.685E+00	1.998E+00	1.867E+00	1.501E+00	1.500E+00
kdNFKB	1.034E+00	1.308E+00	3.161E+00	3.096E+00	2.304E+00	2.773E+00	2.087E+00	1.434E+00	1.639E+00	2.174E+00
ka2a	1.320E-02	6.274E-02	2.672E-02	2.208E-02	2.197E-02	9.218E+01	2.695E-02	3.337E-01	1.067E-02	1.011E-02
kd1d	6.684E-05	6.919E-05	1.137E-03	6.429E-05	7.110E-05	2.005E-03	8.860E-05	8.467E-04	6.420E-05	6.551E-05
c4a	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04	5.000E-04
ke2a	8.353E-02	4.194E-02	2.341E-02	9.911E-02	1.361E-02	3.751E-03	8.649E-03	1.177E-02	1.549E-02	4.211E-03
ki3a	6.638E-03	1.907E-03	1.839E-03	6.038E-03	2.181E-03	1.318E-03	1.358E-03	5.267E-03	1.750E-03	6.700E-03
ke3a	2.457E-03	1.758E-03	7.948E-04	9.293E-04	1.906E-04	1.948E-04	6.694E-04	3.307E-03	3.572E-05	9.766E-04
c5a	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05	2.200E-05
ka	2.409E-06	2.263E-06	2.595E-05	2.120E-06	9.491E-06	3.078E-06	1.556E-05	2.706E-06	2.238E-06	9.295E-06
ki	1.156E-02	9.935E-03	1.130E-02	1.129E-02	1.138E-02	1.157E-02	1.160E-02	9.715E-03	4.903E-03	1.160E-02
kp	6.464E-05	7.738E-05	2.674E-03	9.060E-05	2.421E-03	1.016E-03	1.370E-03	6.441E-05	1.138E-02	8.211E-03
kbA20	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03	1.800E-03
c1a	1.525E+01	6.487E+00	2.227E+01	8.655E+00	1.245E+01	7.777E+00	2.158E+01	1.415E+01	1.421E+01	2.499E+01
h	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00	2.000E+00
k	6.681E-02	6.515E-02	7.179E-02	6.586E-02	1.263E-01	2.033E-01	9.796E-02	6.501E-02	3.657E-01	6.579E-02
rs_a	6.852E-08	9.820E-08	8.706E-08	6.178E-08	5.182E-08	5.435E-08	5.616E-08	5.001E-08	6.515E-08	7.825E-08
c3a	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04	3.000E-04
c2a	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01
k4	1.018E-02	1.155E-02	1.479E-01	1.228E-02	2.641E-02	1.842E-01	9.652E-01	8.229E-02	2.209E-01	2.563E-02
c6a	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05	4.290E-05
c1	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07	2.000E-07
k2	9.979E-01	5.847E-01	1.847E-01	5.772E-01	3.202E-02	2.653E-02	1.675E-01	9.754E-01	1.171E-02	1.050E-01
c3	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04	4.000E-04
c2	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01	5.000E-01
c4	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03	4.500E-03
kc1a	4.998E-01	3.603E-01	6.169E-02	4.990E-01	1.010E-01	2.603E-01	1.095E-01	3.514E-01	8.498E-02	2.791E-01
kt1a	5.796E-03	2.681E-05	9.794E-05	1.160E-06	3.056E-03	1.410E-06	2.146E-06	9.194E-04	5.631E-03	6.875E-06
kc2a	4.071E-01	2.305E-01	9.433E-03	2.774E-01	3.883E-02	3.025E-02	1.465E-02	2.703E-01	9.620E-02	1.971E-02
kt2a	1.274E-04	1.760E-04	3.179E-05	1.616E-04	5.877E-05	7.688E-05	2.662E-05	2.133E-04	3.127E-04	3.724E-05

Supplementary Table 4: Prior boundaries of parameters used for particle swarm optimization of the D2FC and D2FC^2 models. D2FC values of N/A represent parameters that

were introduced in the D2FC^2 model. High and low parameter bounds are equal for parameter values that were held constant during optimization.

			Particle Swarm Parameter Bounds	
Name	D2FC Value	Units	Low	High
ka1a	0.5	1/(uM*sec)	1.00E-02	1.00E+02
kd1a	0.05	1/sec	0.05	0.05
ki1	0.0026	1/sec	0.00026	0.026
ke1	5.20E-05	1/sec	5.20E-06	5.20E-04
f_ka1a	N/A	dimensionless	0.01	1
f_kd1a	N/A	dimensionless	0.01	1
ka1d	N/A	1/sec	6.42E-05	1.16E-02
ps	N/A	dimensionless	1	1.00E+06
h3	N/A	dimensionless	1	1
kdP	N/A	uM/sec	1	3.1623
h2	N/A	dimensionless	1.5	2
kdNFKB	N/A	uM/sec	1	3.1623
ka2a	N/A	1/(uM *sec)	1.00E-02	1.00E+02
kd1d	N/A	1/sec	6.42E-05	1.16E-02
c4a	0.0005	1/sec	0.0005	0.0005
ke2a	0.01	1/sec	1.00E-03	1.00E-01
ki3a	0.00067	1/sec	6.70E-05	6.70E-03
ke3a	0.000335	1/sec	3.35E-05	3.35E-03
c5a	2.20E-05	1/sec	2.20E-05	2.20E-05
ka	2.00E-06	1/sec	1.00E-07	1.00E-04
ki	0.003	1/sec	6.42E-05	1.16E-02
kp	0.0006	1/sec	6.42E-05	1.16E-02
kbA20	0.0018	uM	0.0018	0.0018
c1a	1.00E+00	dimensionless	1.00E+00	2.50E+01
h	2	dimensionless	2.00E+00	2.00E+00
k	0.065	uM	6.50E-02	3.00E+00
rs_a	3.08E-06	uM/sec	5.00E-08	1.00E-07
c3a	0.0003	1/sec	0.0003	0.0003
c2a	0.5	1/sec	5.00E-01	5.00E-01
k4	0.065	uM	1.00E-02	1
c6a	4.29E-05	1/sec	4.29E-05	4.29E-05
c1	2.00E-07	uM /sec	2.00E-07	2.00E-07
k2	0.065	uM	1.00E-02	1
c3	0.0004	1/sec	0.0004	0.0004
c2	0.5	1/sec	0.5	0.5
c4	0.0045	1/sec	0.0045	0.0045
kc1a	0.074	1/(uM*sec)	0.009	0.5
kt1a	0.1	1/sec	1.00E-06	0.006
kc2a	0.37	1/(uM *sec)	0.009	0.5
kt2a	0.1	1/sec	1.00E-06	0.006